What We Need to Know About the Social Economy
A Guide for Policy Research

July 2005

PRI Project

New Approaches for Addressing Poverty and Exclusion

Canada

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Acknowledgments

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PREFACE

For some time, stakeholders active in community economic development and the social economy have proven that community driven and citizen-led initiatives such as social enterprises are successful mechanisms to address social issues at the local community level. Across Canada, social enterprises are proving to be flexible and sustainable tools that help communities achieve social and economic objectives such as job creation and skill development, social supports, sustainable environments, economic growth and neighbourhood revitalisation.

As not-for-profit businesses emerging out of community-based organisations, these enterprises reinvest surpluses from the sale of goods and services on the market back into the organisation to achieve a social purpose rather than generate a profit. This distinguishes them from the private and for profit sectors. It also places the social economy in a good position to complement traditional approaches to building Canada's social landscape. In times of increased complexity and diversity, it is community innovation, creativity and the mobilisation of resources at community levels that are acting as the key drivers of sustainable social change.

In recognition of the social economy's contribution to Canada's communities, the Government of Canada committed to making the social economy a key part of Canada's social policy tool kit in Budget 2004. Federal efforts to achieve this objective are explicit in the social economy initiatives with new funding allocated for capacity building, financing and research. A commitment was also made to improving the access of social enterprises to government programs and services for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

Despite our progress to date, there is no room to be complacent since there is ample room to increase our knowledge and build the networks and infrastructures to make the social economy an active and sustainable sector of the Canadian economy. The benefits of doing so are obvious in Quebec, where there are an estimated 6,200 social economy enterprises which together employ 65,000 people and generate annual sales in excess of $4 billion.

In 2004, I initiated the National Roundtable on the Social Economy in order to engage in a dialogue with key stakeholders and federal representatives about the issues and barriers challenging the growth of the social economy. Key barriers identified by the National Roundtable are a lack of research and information, and of knowledge and learning sharing between the regional and national networks. In order to be effective, policy makers will need to be informed by research conducted within and outside governments, as well as by the existing knowledge available locally, regionally and nationally - thus enabling them to determine what is working well and why, and what gaps still exist.

I welcome this publication from the Policy Research Initiative. I have no doubt that it will offer added-value to the identification and development of policies and programs needed to support the social economy. I encourage the research community to continue to apply its expertise and develop references that will guide all stakeholders in harnessing civic and entrepreneurial knowledge and energy for community benefit.

The Honourable Eleni Bakopanos, P.C., M.P.
Parliamentary Secretary to the
Minister of Social Development
with special emphasis on Social Economy

Highlights

- This guide provides background on the social economy, identifies research issues whose examination would support the development of policies and programs, provides suggestions for how this research might be conducted, and points to some useful information sources.
- Social economy enterprises (SEEs) are organizations democratically governed by their members or the stakeholders they serve that use a combination of market (sales revenue and paid labour) and non-market (government funding, private philanthropy, and volunteer labour) resources to produce and deliver goods and services in the marketplace based on a combination of the common interests of members and concern about the well-being of others. They are citizen-led, community-based organizations that deliver goods and services locally, sometimes as part of a network of similar organizations, sometimes with the help of other organizations that provide financial, strategic, and technical support.
- Social economy enterprises account for around two and a half percent of Canadian gross domestic product (GDP).
- Governments should facilitate the formation of organizations that advance shared common interest and public service objectives. Whether governments should provide funding to any organization depends on its public interest objectives and its ability to advance those objectives efficiently and effectively. Before funding organizations, governments should examine supporting intended beneficiaries directly as an alternative or complement.
- To help governments to better support the social economy and SEEs to operate more effectively, researchers could usefully explore issues in each of five areas:
  - descriptive research and data development;
  - regulatory frameworks;
  - when and how governments should fund the social economy;
  - tools for measuring the impact of SEEs; and
  - best practices for governments and SEEs.
- Researchers have a key role to play in informing the development of new policies and programs by governments, and in identifying and sharing effective practices across the social economy.

1. Introduction

The social economy is a fairly new label for a diverse and evolving combination of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that have been producing and delivering goods and services in communities across Canada and around the world for over a century. These organizations are different from for-profit businesses in that they involve a diverse collection of stakeholders in decisions and reinvest any profits to advance the mission of the organization, instead of disbursing them to owners/shareholders. Organizational missions are based on a combination of common interest and public service objectives.

The social economy has received considerable attention by governments over the past 10 to 15 years, notably in Europe and Quebec. Interest has increased in Ottawa more recently, as demonstrated, for example, in the 2004 federal budget, which announced that SEEs would be provided with access to existing small business programs, along with new funding for financing and strategic planning and capacity building by community economic development organizations. The budget also announced that the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC) will administer a research program on the social economy that will document and share best practices.

In light of the federal government's stated interest in the social economy, the Policy Research Initiative (PRI) and SSHRC held a roundtable on policy research issues in September 2004. The roundtable was one of four co-sponsored by the two organizations in 2004 to improve the quality of knowledge transfer between researchers and policy makers. It brought together the responsible parliamentary secretary, officials engaged in policy development and analysis, researchers from within and outside government, and practitioners to discuss policy research needs.

This guide is based on background documents distributed in advance of the September roundtable, the presentations and discussions of the day, and additional research. It provides background on the social economy, identifies research issues whose examination would support the development of policy; provides some suggestions for how this research might be conducted, and points to helpful information sources.

Section 2 examines the scope of the social economy in Canada. It provides definitions and highlights from descriptive research carried out to date.

It is apparent that views on whether and how to support the social economy depend to some extent on the perspective adopted concerning the role of government. **Section 3** applies welfare economics principles and research findings to identify some broad observations regarding the contribution the social economy can make to well-being.

Section 4 provides an overview of efforts made in many jurisdictions since the early 1990s to examine and support the social economy.

While perspectives on the role of government vary, there was considerable agreement at the PRI-SSHRC roundtable concerning the policy research issues that require attention. **Section 5** provides suggestions for how policy research might be carried out in each of five areas: descriptive research and data development, regulatory frameworks, when and how to fund the social economy, tools for measuring the impact of SEEs, and best practices for SEEs and for how governments can support them. The section ends with an overview of available resources that can support policy research in these and other areas. The resources are listed in Appendix 2.

The guide is intended to be used as a reference source for policy research and the development of analysis and advice by those exploring how governments can best support the social economy to help people in their local communities.

2. The Scope of the Social Economy

Organizations that aim to maximize their profits and are governed directly or indirectly by shareholders are defined as for-profit businesses. In contrast, SEEs involve a diverse collection of stakeholders in decisions and reinvest any profits to advance the mission of the organization, instead of disbursing them to owners/shareholders. The missions of SEEs are based on a combination of common interest and public service objectives. A few examples illustrate the difference.

- A mutual insurance company focused on the interests of policy holders and a local sports association run by parents that brings neighbourhood kids together to play soccer on Saturday mornings are examples of common interest SEEs.
- A soup kitchen that receives donations from local supermarkets to provide low-cost meals to individuals in need and an organization that receives private donations and grants from governments to provide training to individuals that need help securing employment are examples of public service SEEs.

In practice, SEEs are citizen-led, community-based organizations that use a combination of market (sales revenue and paid labour) and non-market (government funding, private philanthropy, and volunteer labour) resources to produce and deliver goods and services in the marketplace. Separate organizations can provide financing, strategic planning, and technical support to SEEs. This is the case in Quebec, where, for example, numerous organizations provide financing, and some of these also provide advice.

In the remainder of the guide, "the social economy" is meant to encompass a collection of NGOs that do not aim to maximize profits, but instead to advance various common interest and public service objectives. "Social economy enterprises" are meant to encompass all the social economy organizations that produce and deliver goods or services in the marketplace, generally at the community level, often for individuals and areas in need. The term "social economy organizations" is occasionally used to include SEEs and other organizations in the social economy that carry out other activities, such as the provision of advice to governments and services to SEEs.

The preceding definitions are sufficient for the purposes of this guide. For those interested in exploring definitions in more detail, the literature includes considerably more material.[1]

The Social Economy in Canada

Although terms and concepts have varied substantially from study to study, much is known about the activities of SEEs and related organizations in Canada and abroad, due to the efforts of many researchers. While care needs to be taken in making comparisons across studies, given the range of sometimes inconsistent concepts that have been applied, the research results are helpful in generating a picture of the activities of the large and diverse collection of non-governmental and non-profit organizations in Canada.

Ninacs (2002) draws on several sources to provide a snapshot of the social economy in Quebec, which consists of a diverse collection of enterprises including financial services, production, worker, job, solidarity, housing and consumer co-operatives, home care providers, and training businesses. A variety of organizations provide financial, strategic, and technical support. These include local development centres, regional development co-operatives financed by the Ministère de l'Industrie et du Commerce, regional committees and the Chantier de l'économie sociale, a non-profit organization that brings together promoters of SEEs, local development stakeholders, and major social movements to promote and develop the

1 For example, Lévesque and Mendell (2004) make a helpful distinction between four kinds of social economy enterprises using two dimensions with two values each. The first dimension is whether they developed primarily as a strategy to combat poverty and social and occupational exclusion, or to respond to new opportunities. The second dimension is whether they are predominantly market-based or non-market based. Most of the examples Lévesque and Mendell provide of the resulting four kinds of organizations are what were defined earlier as public service social economy enterprises. Lévesque and Mendell (2004) also provide a longer definition of social economy enterprise in terms of principles and values adopted in Quebec and elsewhere. They also provide a more fulsome examination of the definition of related terms like the third sector and non-profits. Fairbairn (2004) considers and compares the positive and normative characteristics of SEEs and co-operatives. Ninacs (2002) describes how the meaning and usage of terms like the social economy, the third sector, and the voluntary sector vary across jurisdictions.

social economy in the province. Ninacs described an interrelated collection of organizations that provide goods and services and strategic and technical support based on common themes and priorities, which have included home care, child care, forestry, funeral services, and recycling.

In contrast to the situation in Quebec, Ninacs suggests that the co-operative and non-profit movements are less intertwined elsewhere in Canada, and that cultural, regional, and historical differences have led to a mosaic of social economy models. He provides some illustrative examples. Many of the co-operatives in Atlantic Canada emerged from an adult education movement. In the Prairies, wheat pools were set up to increase the bargaining power of farmers. One of the world's largest credit unions is in British Columbia, while North America's largest consumer co-operative is in Calgary. More than 100 Aboriginal co-operatives in the north respond to a wide variety of needs.

Social economy enterprises as defined earlier can be situated somewhere between for-profit businesses and government organizations. The following typology, which borrows heavily from conceptual work by Defourny (2001), can be used to situate SEEs and related organizations:

- for-profit businesses;
- common interest SEEs (e.g., mutual insurance companies, consumer co-operatives, and neighbourhood recreational associations);
- public service SEEs;
- other NGOs (e.g., those focused on advocacy, research, and religion);
- near government organizations (e.g., hospitals and universities); and
- government organizations.

Moving from the top to the bottom of the list, there is a tendency for the proportion of the population reflected in the ultimate objectives of the organization to increase, the proportion of the population that has a say in the control of the organization to increase, and the extent of dependency on the marketplace for revenue to decrease.[2]

Table 1 makes use of the typology to provide a sense of the size and structure of the social economy and other sectors in Canada. The numbers presented in the table come from secondary sources and Statistics Canada.

The table reveals considerable variability in the concepts that have been applied to examine the organizations located between for-profit businesses and governments. Nonetheless, a rough estimate of the total size of the social economy (columns 2, 3 and 4 in Table 1) can be calculated based on the last three rows of the Table: it is about 2.5% of GDP (column 3 + column 4 + column 5) minus 0.9% (column 5) plus the value of the SEEs not captured in the second last row (column 2, equal to about 1%[3]). In other words, as defined, the social economy accounts for about 2.6% of the total Canadian economy. This was larger that the aerospace (0.6%), mining (1.0%) and pulp and paper[4] (1.3%) industries, about the same size as the oil and gas extraction (2.5%) industry, and smaller than the transportation equipment (3.1%) industry in 1999.[5]

Figure 1 provides a breakdown of GDP in Canada by type of organization using the information presented in Table 1 and the preceding calculations.

Canadian data reported in 2004 allow for identifying some trends for the non-profit and voluntary sector, as well as for the same sector excluding near government organizations (i.e., post-secondary institutions and hospitals). The first of these (the non-profit and voluntary sector) is considerably larger than the social economy as defined earlier.[6] The second corresponds much more closely to the definition of

2 "Tendency" is especially important in the case of dependency on the marketplace for revenue. A common interest SEE, such as a collective kitchen operated by lower-income individuals, may be highly dependent on non-market revenue sources.

3 The 1% value was calculated by assuming that the ratio of employees to GDP for co-operatives, credit unions, and mutual insurance companies is equal to the same ratio for the economy as a whole. It was calculated as the ratio of the estimated number of employees for these organizations (i.e., 155,398, as reported in column 2 of the third last row of the table) to the estimate of the total number of employees in Canada provided by Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey (15,949,700 in 2004), that is, 155,398/15,949,700 = 1%. The estimate is not exactly based on comparing apples to oranges, but it should be interpreted with some caution.

4 "Paper manufacturing" as defined in the North American Industry Classification System.

5 Statistics Canada data defined according to the North American Industry Classification System.

6 More specifically, it corresponds roughly to the social economy, less most co-operatives, credit unions, and mutual insurance companies, plus other NGOs and near government organizations. In terms of the columns in Table 1, it corresponds to 3 + 4 + 5 + 6, while the social economy corresponds to 2 + 3 + 4.

Table 1. Situating the Social Economy in Canada

Sector	Private Sector	Social Economy				Public Sector	
Organization type	For-profit businesses	Common interest SEEs		Public service SEEs	Other NGOs	Near government organizations	Government organizations
Column	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Number of employees			2 million, plus volunteers in 2003[a]				
		155,398 in 2004[b]	740,000 in 1999[c]				821,000 in 2004[d]
Share of GDP			2.5% in 1999, excluding volunteers[e]			4.3% in 1999, excluding volunteers[f]	
	87.4% in 1999[g]				0.9% in 1999[h]		5.8% in 1999[i]

Notes:

a Based on the National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations as reported in Hall et al. (2004).

b This estimate provided by the Canadian Co-operative Association in March 2005 is for co-operatives, credit unions, and mutual insurance companies. It is based on data collected by Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada's Co-operatives Secretariat. While these organizations are categorized as common interest SEEs in the table, some and perhaps all of them engage in activities with public service objectives. For more on this topic, see Fairbairn (2002).

c This estimate reported in Goldenberg (2004) is based on Statistics Canada's Workplace and Employee Survey.

d Statistics Canada's Labour Force Survey.

e From the Satellite Account on Nonprofit Institutions and Volunteering, as reported in Hamdad et al. (2004). The estimate excludes most co-operatives.

f From the Satellite Account on Nonprofit Institutions and Volunteering, as reported in Hamdad et al. (2004). It consists of hospitals (including public residential care facilities), universities, and colleges.

g Calculated by subtracting the two values of the preceding row and the government organization value (of 5.8%) from 100%.

h Statistics Canada's estimate of GDP for the religious, grant-making, civic, and professional and similar organizations industry, defined according to the North American Industry Classification System.

i Statistics Canada's estimate of GDP for federal, provincial and territorial, and local, municipal and regional public administration, defined according to the North American Industry Classification System.

the social economy.[7] The analysis of these data presented in Appendix 1 (Table A1-1) suggests that both the social economy and the support provided to it by governments have grown in Canada in recent years.

Unfortunately, readily available data only allow for drawing comparisons between Canada and other developed countries for the non-profit and voluntary sector, which, as noted, is considerably larger than the social economy as defined earlier. The two comparisons provided in Appendix 1 (Table A1-2) suggest the sector is significantly larger in Canada than in other developed countries on average, and that governments are responsible for a slightly larger share of funding in Canada compared to other developed countries on average.

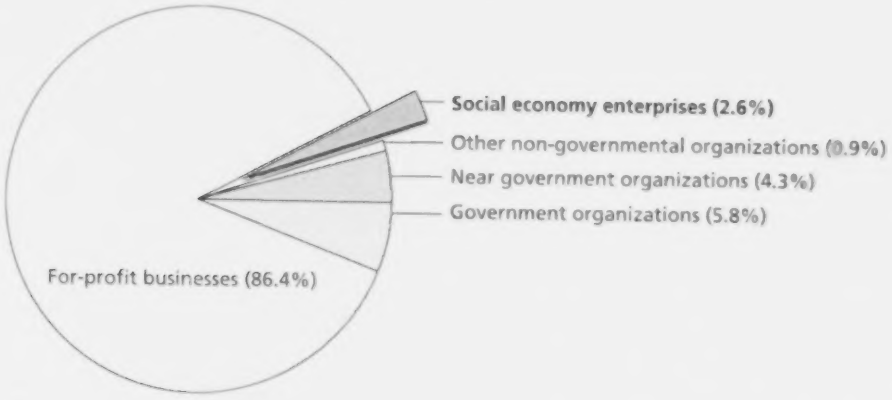
Readily comparable data reported by province and territory from the National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations (Hall et al., 2004) suggest that, on a per-capita basis, the non-profit and voluntary sector (which, as noted, is considerably larger than the social economy as defined earlier) is relatively large in Manitoba and the territories as a whole, relatively small in Newfoundland and Labrador, Prince Edward Island, Nova Scotia, and British Columbia, and about average in the remaining provinces.[8] The percentage of total revenues coming from governments ranged from a low of 33% in Alberta to a high of 60% in Quebec.

Data on funding provided to organizations by level of government were also reported in 2004. The analysis

7 In terms of the columns in Table 1, it corresponds to 3 + 4 + 5.

8 The readily comparable variables reported by province and for the territories as a whole in Hall et al. (2004) are total revenues, number of paid staff, and total hours volunteered.

Figure 1. GDP by Type of Organization in Canada



Note:
The figure should be interpreted in light of the typology presented earlier in the section and the notes associated with Table 1. The values corresponding to SEEs and other NGOs might best be characterized as rough estimates.

presented in Appendix 1 (Table A1-3) indicates that the vast majority of direct funding provided by governments to the non-profit and voluntary sector, and the same sector excluding post-secondary institutions and hospitals, comes from provincial and territorial governments. Appendix 1 (Table A1-4) also demonstrates that the federal government provides considerable funding to provinces and territories in the form of cash and tax transfers. Any of this funding subsequently directed by provinces and territories to organizations would have been attributed to the provinces and territories in the data reported in 2004. Overall, the amount of funding transferred from the federal government to provincial and territorial governments exceeds that provided by provincial and territorial governments to the non-profit and voluntary sector.

The remainder of this guide explores the role of government without drawing a distinction between the roles and responsibilities of the federal, provincial/territorial, and local governments. Implicit is the view that what governments need to do can be addressed before sorting out what specific activities should be carried out by what level of government. In practice, the appropriate division of responsibilities between different levels of government is likely to require considerable attention during both the development and implementation of policies and programs.

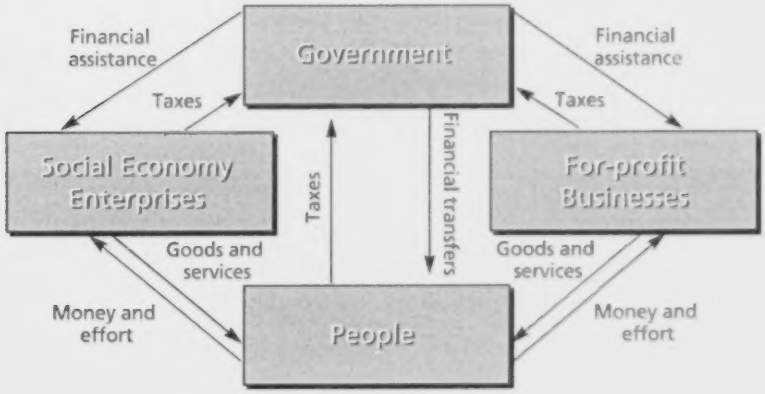
3. The Role of Government in the Social Economy

Section 3 applies welfare economics principles and findings from the literature to make some observations regarding whether and how governments should support the social economy.

Figure 2 presents a simple framework for describing how goods and services are produced, paid for, and consumed by people.

As depicted in Figure 2, SEEs and for-profit businesses are alternative ways of delivering goods and services.[9] In the absence of government intervention, the distribution of goods and services provided by the two kinds of organizations will reflect the preferences of people when they act as producers, consumers, and benefactors.

Figure 2. Goods and Services Cycle



People with diverse objectives voluntarily choose to form, join, or support organizations that produce and distribute goods and services. These organizations are a combination of for-profit businesses and SEEs as defined earlier. People freely choose which goods and services to buy from which organizations, as well as which organizations to support as benefactors. The organizations choose whether to work with one another, based on judgments about how to advance their objectives.

People also create governments to make and enforce rules, including rules that redistribute resources from some individuals to others.

Observation 1: Social economy enterprises are compatible with the market economy and can make a positive contribution to welfare by reflecting the broad preferences of individuals (as consumers or producers), including preferences for the objectives pursued by these organizations.

Governments should redistribute resources (i.e., take them from some people and give them to others either directly or indirectly) when it would increase efficiency without leaving anyone worse off, or because some individuals would otherwise receive what is deemed to be an insufficient amount of resources (i.e., to address equity issues).[10] To be able to do this, governments need to know when to

9 The framework assumes that governments do not deliver goods and services. This assumption has no bearing on the observations made in section 3.

10 What is or is not a sufficient amount of resources is assumed to be determined by the political system. The framework and analysis provided here is neutral on this important political question.

redistribute, be it to increase efficiency or support those in need, and how best to redistribute (in cases where they should), through a combination of transferring money or the right to purchase particular goods or services directly to people and supporting the delivery of goods and services through for-profit businesses or SEEs.[11]

When to Redistribute

Redistribution by governments is not costless. First, raising the required revenue generally imposes a welfare loss (the dead weight loss associated with taxation). Second, introducing government funding to organizations disconnects, to some extent, the relationship between producers and consumers: market signals based on producer costs and consumer preferences can get distorted. As a result, economic efficiency can decline. Third, if the funding provided by governments is discretionary, its availability increases transaction costs by encouraging the investment of time and money to obtain it. More specifically, individuals and organizations are expected to pursue discretionary funding for as long as the value of the funding potentially available to them times the probability it will be received exceeds the cost of pursuing it. In other words, individuals and organizations are expected to pursue discretionary funding for a long time, and thus at considerable cost. The Contribution of Social Capital in the Social Economy (CONSCISE Project), a major study of the social economy in Europe, found examples of "wasteful competition" of this sort (CONSCISE Project Team, 2003).

Moreover, the availability of government funding to address problems may interfere with the development and implementation of less costly, more democratic and arguably more effective solutions by individuals and organizations. The ability of groups to address issues without significant government expenditures has been demonstrated in the laboratory and in the field in the case of common resource problems (Ostrom, 2002). It is not clear that a new funding program always represents the best response to an identified issue.

Observation 2: There are costs as well as benefits associated with redistribution through organizations.

Increasing efficiency through redistribution[12]

It was stated earlier that governments should redistribute resources when this would increase efficiency without leaving anyone worse off, or to address equity issues. The neoclassical economics view focuses on the first of these. It holds that governments should not consider redistributing resources unless a market failure has been demonstrated, and should not intervene unless the benefits of addressing the demonstrated market failure would exceed the costs.

Violation of any of the following six assumptions implies that markets have failed.

1. There is perfect competition. (No buyer or seller is able to individually influence the price of any good or service.)
2. Consumers and producers are fully informed (i.e., they have perfect information).
3. Transaction costs are zero (i.e., all factors of production are perfectly mobile).
4. All the consequences of market transactions that matter to individuals and organizations are reflected in market prices (i.e., there are no externalities and no goods with zero marginal cost).
5. The market is complete. (The market is incomplete if there are consumers willing to pay more for any unavailable good or service than it costs to produce it.)
6. Individual preferences, which are a function of self-interest broadly defined, determine behaviour.

It may make sense for governments to support the social economy to respond to market failures. For example, SEEs that deliver social services in depressed neighbourhoods may respond to a market failure associated with Assumption 4. They may, for example, generate benefits that are not limited to the consumers of these services, but become available to others as well. Such benefits (or positive externalities) might include increased safety or social cohesion.

11 As noted earlier, the framework assumes that governments do not deliver goods and services.

12 Much of the material in this and the following subsection is closely based on briefings prepared for the PEI by Derek Ham from the University of Manitoba.

If SEEs are better than for-profit financial institutions at understanding and assessing the training needs of individuals with limited means to pay, they may respond to a market failure associated with Assumption 5. These SEEs may be able to finance investments in training by these individuals at a lower cost than other organizations, thereby creating a market (for training low-income individuals) that would not otherwise exist.

If individuals who acquire skills due to the efforts of SEEs have an easier time moving from job to job, the organizations may also address a market failure associated with Assumption 3. As a result, the cost of welfare benefits provided by governments may decline. Broadly speaking, it may be in the interest of everyone for governments to redistribute resources through SEEs that increase aggregate demand by increasing the mobility of labour and thus expand the labour market.

Analysis based on market failures can usefully be applied to examining the role of government in supporting the social economy.

Helping people in need through redistribution

It is true, at least in theory, that a market economy can be efficient in the presence of considerable deprivation. In other words, some people can suffer considerably even if governments have correctly addressed all market failures or, alternatively, that resource allocation can be both consistent with the policy prescriptions of the neoclassical view and unacceptable to Canadians who support efforts to reduce inequality of opportunity or outcome.

The neoclassical view does not imply that redistribution to address equity objectives will lead to an inefficient outcome. Something called the second fundamental law of welfare economics says, roughly, that under certain conditions, any efficient outcome can be achieved through redistribution (Frank and Parker, 2002).[13]

A further result from economics supports the notion that the neoclassical view is not sufficient for considering issues where SEEs support individuals in need: most economists accept, for technical reasons, that their key tools of the trade are not very well suited to determining how survival goods like food and medicines should be supplied.

The limitations of the neoclassical view are also suggested by the results of experimental studies reported by Wilber (2003) that cast doubt on Assumption 6 above. He argues that preferences are based not only on self-interest, even where broadly defined, but also on values. He notes that experiments conducted by psychologists demonstrate that people are concerned about co-operating with others and being fair as well as advancing their own interests. He also describes the results of a specific experiment where nearly half of the wallets containing cash and identification left in a major US city were returned to their owners intact, despite the trouble and expense of doing so to their discoverers. This behaviour cannot be explained as a function of self-interest, even when defined in broad terms.

Simply put, assuming that governments should reallocate resources to address equity issues, the neoclassical view is insufficient for advising governments when to support the social economy.

Observation 3: To support decisions about when to fund the social economy, governments may need a funding policy that includes both efficiency and equity objectives.

How to Redistribute

In addition to identifying when support should be provided to address a market failure or help individuals in need, governments also must decide how to provide it. Non-exclusive approaches include transferring money or the right to purchase particular goods or services directly to people; or supporting the delivery of goods and services through SEEs or for-profit businesses.

Section 5 considers the role of SEEs in delivering public services in comparison to other kinds of organizations. For present purposes (the related issue of the role of government in supporting the social economy), it is worth noting that providing support directly to individuals is not inconsistent with the development of the social economy, but

13 Somewhat more formally, the theorem states that, under relatively unrestrictive conditions, any initial allocation can be sustained as a competitive equilibrium.

it would be one where SEEs would interact with individuals as potential customers rather than program beneficiaries.

The two approaches for how governments can address a market failure or help individuals in need are non-exclusive because governments can support the formation of organizations at the same time as they support individuals who can subsequently choose their suppliers.

Providing support directly to individuals through personal transfers ensures that the value received by them at least equals the cost of the program.[14] This may not always be the case where support is provided through organizations, since the goods and services they provide may not be aligned with the needs of individuals. Simply put, individuals can signal their preferences by deciding what goods and services to acquire from what kinds of organizations.

Observation 4: Decisions concerning how best to redistribute resources should consider supporting individuals directly.

The effective use of public funds requires oversight when the preferences of individuals do not determine what goods and services are produced. Oversight is needed to ensure the incentives faced and actions taken by organizations align with program objectives and the needs of intended beneficiaries. There are examples where this has not been the case. For example, evidence suggests that non-profits will push the boundaries of contracts they enter into with governments (Rasmussen et al., 2003), and organizations sometimes act against the interests of individuals they are meant to help.[15]

Hall et al. (2003a) note that the effectiveness of voluntary organizations depends on their ability to assess adequately the programs and services they deliver. Carter (2003) highlights measuring the performance and impacts of SEEs as an area needing further attention by governments.

Observation 5: Oversight is critical when governments redistribute though organizations.

Oversight can be used to align the objectives of government programs with the behaviour of organizations, regardless of whether they are for-profit or non-profit organizations. While public service SEEs likely have objectives more similar to government programs than for-profit businesses, effective oversight can, at least in theory, make profit-maximization consistent with pursuing the public interest. More generally, the market failure and other possible justifications for government intervention examined above generally depend more on the nature of the goods or services, or the individuals in question, rather than on the nature of the organizations providing them.[16]

Observation 6: Governments might usefully consider broadening the range of organizations that can apply for support under current and proposed programs.

Section 5 identifies three broad conclusions suggested by these six observations, and from these five areas that researchers could usefully explore in the future. Before that, Section 4 provides what might be characterized as an empirical perspective on the role of government.

14 Subject to any inefficiency associated with raising the tax revenue required to pay for the program.

15 Fremont-Smith and Kosaras (2003) present many examples of wrongdoing on the part of individuals involved in charities. Bode and Evers (2004) note that many cooperatives in Germany in the postwar period were big, bureaucratic and "riven by corruption and scandals." The Harvard Business School (1982) provided an interesting illustration of how oversight is an issue within for-profit firms, noting that managers have significant discretion to pursue objectives other than profit maximization, including personal objectives. Oversight is especially important when external funders rather than customers determine priorities, because in the latter case inefficient behaviour usually cannot be sustained over time, since customers will normally be able to take their business elsewhere.

16 Section 5 explores whether they also depend on the nature of the organization, concluding that there is reason for thinking (and some evidence suggesting) that SEEs might be well suited to deliver certain kinds of public services.

4. Recent Social Economy Initiatives by Governments and International Organizations

Table 2 provides a summary of a fairly broad search of what might best be viewed as a helpful (although far from complete) literature on social economy initiatives by governments and international organizations.[17]

A few broad observations can be abstracted from the initiatives presented in Table 2.

- Many jurisdictions have introduced changes to the regulatory frameworks within which SEEs operate.
- A wide range of funding approaches have been introduced over the past 15 years, ranging from supporting the delivery of government-defined services to creating investment funds with broadly defined purposes.
- Expanding the range of organizations that can provide services has been an objective in several jurisdictions. For example, policy changes introduced in the United Kingdom during the late 1990s have public, for-profit, and social economy organizations competing for the delivery of publicly funded social services (Laville et al., 2000; Spear, 2001).
- Providing similar treatment to different kinds of organizations that provide similar goods and services has been an objective in several jurisdictions. For example, this was one objective underlying changes made in the 1990s in several European countries to fiscal provisions (i.e., taxation regimes) (Chaves and Monzón, 2000). In the United Kingdom, the kind of support that has long been available to small businesses is being extended to SEEs (Taylor, 2004). In Canada, the 2004 federal budget announced that SEEs would gain access to existing small business programs.

Table 2 gives only a limited sense of the specific issues for which funding has been provided to SEEs, either under government-defined service delivery contracts, or under looser arrangements that provide more discretion to the receivers of funds. It is evident from the following list of priority areas specifically mentioned in the literature that many governments have seen the social economy as a means for addressing a wide variety of public-service objectives.

- Provide social, health, and educational services, services for persons with disabilities, the elderly, and individuals with drug dependencies; support the integration of disadvantaged or hard-to-place workers (Italy).
- Provide work experience to eligible job seekers on community-based projects in the fields of heritage, the environment, health care, tourism, sport, and the restoration of community facilities (Australia).
- Address social exclusion; provide welfare, employment, education, and health services; support preschoolers, and reviving communities with struggling local economies (United Kingdom).
- Create short-term jobs in recycling operations and social services (Germany).
- Provide training (Belgium).
- Provide elder care (the Netherlands).
- Promote physical and environmental regeneration; address social exclusion; support training, entrepreneurship, and employment in deprived urban areas (European Union).

17 The most helpful sources tend to be country-specific chapters prepared by academics. The literature that systematically organizes and compares initiatives across jurisdictions appears to consist of one book chapter by Chaves and Monzón (2000). While the chapter presents considerable information, it covers only activities up to the 1990s, and only in Europe. International organizations are probably best placed to collect, analyze, and report information on social economy initiatives, systematically, across jurisdictions. More work of this sort is needed.

Table 2. Social Economy Initiatives by Jurisdiction and Issue Since 1990

	Descriptive Research	Regulatory Frameworks	Funding for Service Delivery	Funding for Capacity Building	Funding to Engage in Policy Making	Funding to Address Specific Issues	Broad-based Funding Initiatives	Measuring Impacts	Best Practices
Canada	Voluntary Sector Initiative (VSI, 2005)			Pilot program for community economic development organizations in 2004 budget (Finance, 2005)	Voluntary Sector Initiative		Financing in 2004 budget	Voluntary Sector Initiative	Community-based research in 2004 budget; Voluntary Sector Initiative
Quebec		"Solidarity-Based Co-operatives" (Lévesque and Mendell, 2004)		Chantier de l'économie sociale (Mendell et al., 2003)			Several funds; Tax measures (Mendell et al., 2003)		
European Union	Social Economy Unit (EU web site)	"European Co-operative Societies"		Local Social Pilot Project		URBAN Programme (EU web site)	Local Social Pilot Project; Several funds (UK, 1999; Taylor, 2004)		Social Economy Unit
United Kingdom		"Community Interest Companies" and "Charitable Incorporated Organisations" (Taylor, 2004)	Increase in competitive contracting (Laville et al., 2000; Spear, 2001) Procurement toolkit (UK, 2003)	Local government activities (Spear, 2001)	√ (Taylor, 2004)	Local partnerships (Lewis, 2004); Development trusts (Spear, 2001)	Futurebuilders (United Kindgom, 2002)		
Italy, Belgium, France, Germany, Spain, and Sweden		"Voluntary Organizations" and "Social Co-operatives"	√ (Chaves and Monzón, 2000)			Several initiatives	Benefits to individuals who invest in non-profits		
Germany, Italy, and Spain, 2000; Portugal, Spain, Italy, and Spain, 2001			Increase in competitive contracting	Local government activities		Pilot projects		More reporting required	
Japan		Statutory definition of charity (introduced and subsequently withdrawn) (Nowak, 2003; Australia, 2004)	Government monopoly for welfare services ended (Nowak, 2003)	"Area Consultative Committees" (Nowak, 2003) Small Business Incubator Program (Australia, 2005)	Stronger Families and Communities Strategy (Nowak, 2003)		Regional Assistance Program (Nowak, 2003)		
Israel		"Social Initiative Co-operatives" (Davister et al., 2004) Favourable fiscal treatment for foundations	√ (Chaves and Monzón, 2000)			Job creation			
Hungary		"Company with a Social Purpose" (Defourny, 2001)	√ (Chaves and Monzón, 2000)	Technical support		Job creation	Loans, guarantees and funds (Nyssens, 2002; Chaves and Monzón, 2000)		

	Voluntary Sector Initiative (VSI, 2005)			Pilot program for community economic development organizations in 2004 budget (Finance, 2005)	Voluntary Sector Initiative		Financing in 2004 budget	Voluntary Sector Initiative	Community-based research in 2004 budget; Voluntary Sector Initiative
		"Solidarity-Based Co-operatives" (Levesque and Mendell, 2004)		Chantier de l'economie sociale (Mendell et al., 2003)			Several funds; Tax measures (Mendell et al., 2003)		
	Social Economy Unit (EU web site)	"European Co-operative Societies"		Local Social Pilot Project		URBAN Programme (EU web site)	Local Social Pilot Project; Several funds (UK, 1999; Taylor, 2004)		Social Economy Unit
		"Community Interest Companies" and "Charitable Incorporated Organisations" (Taylor, 2004)	Increase in competitive contracting (Laville et al., 2000; Spear, 2001) Procurement toolkit (UK, 2003)	Local government activities (Spear, 2001)	√ (Taylor, 2004)	Local partnerships (Lewis, 2004); Development trusts (Spear, 2001)	Futurebuilders (United Kindgom, 2002)		
		"Voluntary Organizations" and "Social Co-operatives"	√ (Chaves and Monzon, 2000)			Several initiatives	Benefits to individuals who invest in non-profits		
			Increase in competitive contracting	Local government activities		Pilot projects		More reporting required	
		Statutory definition of charity introduced and subsequently withdrawn) (Novak, 2003; Australia, 2004)	Government monopoly for welfare services ended (Novak, 2003)	"Area Consultative Committees" (Novak, 2003) Small Business Incubator Program (Australia, 2005)	Stronger Families and Communities Strategy (Novak, 2003)		Regional Assistance Program (Novak, 2003)		
		"Social Initiative Co-operatives" (Davister et al., 2004) Favourable fiscal treatment for foundations	√ (Chaves and Monzon, 2000)			Job creation			
		"Company with a Social Purpose" (Defourny, 2001)	√ (Chaves and Monzon, 2000)	Technical support		Job creation	Loans, guarantees and funds (Ninacs, 2002; Chaves and Monzon, 2000)		

	Descriptive Research	Regulatory Frameworks	Funding for Service Delivery	Funding for Capacity Building	Funding to Engage in Policy Making	Funding to Address Specific Issues	Broad-Based Funding Initiatives	Measuring Impacts	Best Practices
[illegible]			Local governments manage competitive contracting (Dekker, 2004)						
[illegible]		Increase competition (Laville, 2001) "Coopératives d'activités et d'emplois" (Lévesque and Mendell, 2004)	√ (Chaves and Monzón, 2000)	Leadership training		Job creation			
[illegible]		Charitable foundations (Williams, 2003)					Community Development Financial Institutions Fund (United States, 2005)		
[illegible]		"Social Solidarity Co-operative" (Davister et al., 2004)				Job creation	For co-operatives		

Note:
A checkmark (√) indicates that the source provides only a passing reference to the initiative.

Source:
Unless indicated otherwise, the reference source for information on the European Union and individual European countries is Chaves and Monzón (2000).

5. Policy Research Needs and Resources

Collectively, the six observations developed in Section 3 suggest three broad conclusions.

- Governments should facilitate the formation of organizations that advance shared common interest and public service objectives.
- Whether governments should provide funding to any organization depends on its public interest objectives and its ability to advance those objectives efficiently and effectively.
- Before funding organizations, governments should examine supporting intended beneficiaries directly as an alternative or complement.

In light of these conclusions and what is known about the social economy, researchers could usefully focus their attention on:

- descriptive research and data development;
- regulatory frameworks;
- when and how governments should fund the social economy;
- tools for measuring the impact of SEEs; and
- best practices for governments and SEEs.

This section considers how researchers might explore issues in each of these areas to help governments better support the social economy and help SEEs operate more effectively.

Descriptive Research and Data Development

Conceptualization

Lévesque and Mendell (2004) note that renewed interest in the social economy in Europe in the mid-1970s was due, in large part, to the efforts of academics to identify the common characteristics of co-operatives, mutual societies, and associations. Generating profits is not the central aim of any of the three types of organization.[18]

Defourny (2001) presents a conceptual system that links co-operatives, non-profit organizations, and an emerging model that he calls a "social enterprise." The last category, which has been separately defined in legislation in several countries, combines a social purpose with entrepreneurship, tending to exclude in the process common interest co-operatives (e.g., traditional "users' co-operatives"), advocacy-oriented non-profits, and government and near-government organizations. The typology developed in Section 2 built on Defourny's conceptual work to situate the social economy in Canada.

Lévesque and Mendell (2004) describe how interest in the social economy increased in Quebec during the mid-1990s. Fairbairn (2004) notes that the social economy is not yet organized as such in Canada outside Quebec.

18 It is worth noting that the same thing could be said of at least some of the day-to-day activities of many for-profit businesses, given that they too are organizations made up of people with diverse interests and objectives that are likely constrained only in part by the requirement to make profits for owners/shareholders. The Harvard Business School (1982) notes that, in practice, the beneficiaries of for-profit firms can also include management, consumers, workers, the local community, and broader societal constituencies, regardless of whether investors do or do not support activities of this sort. It could be fruitful to explore, in more detail, the extent of the difference between for-profit businesses and SEEs in practice. The exploration might include, among other things, an assessment of corporate social responsibility, and the possible role for governments in encouraging for-profit firms to pursue a broader range of objectives. While it is likely true that the activities of for-profit businesses and SEEs are more similar in practice than in theory, the broader set of objectives set out in the mission statements of SEEs are bound to exercise a significant influence on the individuals who choose to join and work in these organizations. Accordingly, the day-to-day activities of for-profit businesses and SEEs are bound to differ to some extent.

The typology developed in Section 2 represents one approach to conceptualizing the social economy and related sectors. More work of this sort would be useful, both to advance understanding of the social economy and to prepare the way for further data collection. Academics in Canada and abroad have developed insights and observations that would usefully inform further conceptual work.[19] Results from the National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations suggest that one area to explore further is the relationship between public service SEEs and charities.[20]

Collecting data

Significant progress continues to be made under the Voluntary Sector Initiative on national surveys and the identification of the Canadian non-profit and voluntary sector as an entity (Brock, 2003). For example, two data releases in September 2004 dramatically increased the quality and quantity of available information on this sector.

- The Satellite Account on Nonprofit Institutions and Volunteering includes data covering, among other things, production and income and the economic value of volunteer work.
- The National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations was the first ever large-scale survey of the sector in Canada. It collected data on the finances, expenditures, activities, populations served, and perceived strengths and weaknesses of incorporated non-profit organizations and registered charities.

Organizations in the Satellite Account on Nonprofit Institutions and Volunteering were classified according to the International Classification of Nonprofit Organizations (ICNPO) used in the Johns Hopkins Comparative Non-profit Sector Project. The Johns Hopkins Project provides comparable data across an increasing number of countries on the activities of formally constituted non-governmental, non-religious, non-profit-seeking, non-political, and self-governing organizations that are voluntary to some degree.[21] The National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations used criteria adapted from the ICNPO to classify organizations. As a result, it is now possible to draw some comparisons between Canada and other countries. Some empirical work recently carried out in Canada was described in Section 2.

While progress has been considerable, it remains true that detailed data are not systematically collected on a regular basis on the scope and structure of the social economy as a whole in Canada, a shortcoming first observed more than a decade ago (Quarter, 1992). Research conducted in the United Kingdom (Zimmeck, 2004) would suggest that the absence of standardized data collection makes it difficult to develop a coherent picture of the social economy, regardless of the quality of one-off efforts.

Belgium conducted a national social economy census in the 1990s (Ninacs, 2002) and several countries including France and Spain are taking steps in this direction (Lévesque and Mendell, 2004).

Consideration might be given to the periodic systematic collection and reporting of reliable data on the activities of SEEs in Canada, including on their sources and uses of funds. Further data collection might aim to survey from the complete universe of SEEs, and might explicitly examine their objectives and impacts.

Views differed on whether further data collection should be a priority at a PRI-SSHRC roundtable on the social economy held in September 2004. Data collection can be expensive. Accordingly, there is a need to consider current and expected future policy research and policy development needs before collecting more data. Data collection and conceptual

19 Quarter (1992) draws a distinction between co-operatives, non-profits in public service, and mutual non-profits; Fairbairn (2001, 2004) identifies different kinds of organizations based on their primary activities and "deconstructs" co-operatives as associations of people who act in the marketplace. Bode and Evers (2004) draw a distinction between two kinds of organizations that developed in 19th century Germany: some addressed social needs by helping non-members, while others were based on alternative approaches to economic operations to serve member needs. As noted in Section 2, Lévesque and Mendell (2004) draw a helpful distinction between four types of SEEs based on the nature of the needs they address and whether they are predominantly market or non-market based.

20 While 56% of all the organizations covered by the survey were registered charities, this proportion was very high in sectors with public service objectives (e.g., 87% for hospitals and 72% for social services organizations) and quite low in sectors with common interest objectives (e.g., 27% for sports and recreation and 7% for business and professional associations and unions) (Hall et al., 2004).

21 The classification includes more than 100 sub-sectors in 12 major groups, ranging from international disaster and relief organizations to zoos and aquariums. The full classification is provided in Salamon and Anheier (1996).

work are usefully done in tandem. More specifically, as noted earlier, some further conceptual work might precede further data collection efforts.

Questions for researchers

- What future conceptual work would support the systematic collection of data on the social economy?
- What further data collection would facilitate the examination of the objectives, activities, and outputs of SEEs and the development of public policy?

Regulatory Frameworks

Regulatory frameworks are powerful policy instruments. They can, for example, facilitate oversight by specifying reporting requirements.[22] They can also facilitate directing public funds to advance specific objectives, either through the tax system,[23] or through programs that specify the kinds of organizations that are eligible to apply for funding.

Based on a review of cross-country research, Salamon and Anheier (1997) report that the legal system has a significant influence on how easily individuals can form SEEs. Defourny (2001) provides an example: legislation approved in 1991 supported the "astonishing" development of social co-operatives in Italy. Chaves and Monzón (2000) note that changes made in Sweden and Finland also encouraged the expansion of SEEs in the 1990s.

Chaves and Monzón (2000) provide an overview of changes made to regulatory frameworks in several European countries in the 1990s. These and additional examples from Europe and elsewhere are cited in Table 2 (see Section 4). Many of the changes involved balancing two objectives: encouraging the expansion of SEEs on the one hand and providing equal treatment to organizations providing similar goods and services on the other (Chaves and Monzón, 2000). Three examples illustrate the challenge of balancing these objectives.

- In France, concerns were raised by the private sector that favourable tax treatment provided an unfair advantage to non-profit compared to for-profit organizations. This led to defining and making operational the concept of the social usefulness of organizations. The definition is based on the organization's clientele, governance, and objectives (Chaves and Monzón, 2000).
- Charities in the United Kingdom continue to be defined in terms of a law dating back to 1601: they are organizations that provide relief of poverty, advance education or religion, or undertake other purposes beneficial to the community. An organization is excluded if its trustees benefit personally from the services delivered or in the distribution of profits. These requirements exclude many SEEs from qualifying for some kinds of government support. A government review in the United Kingdom in 2002 proposed extensive changes to these provisions that would increase the number of permissible areas of activity, aiming to focus more clearly on public benefit, create new legal forms, improve accountability, and encourage entrepreneurship. One proposed new legal form, community interest companies, would have improved access to finance, be protected against demutualization, and their assets and profits could only be used for social purposes (Taylor, 2004).
- Social co-operatives in Italy are not prohibited from distributing profits, but restrictions are placed on the distribution. For example, the rate of return is limited to marginally higher than the risk-free rate, and assets cannot be distributed should the organization be wound down (Borzaga and Santuari, 2001). Despite several attempts to do so, a general law for the social economy as a whole has not yet been enacted in Italy. As a result, organizations engaged in similar activities continue to receive different treatment and benefits (Borzaga, 2004).

Many governments looking to promote the social economy have been revisiting their regulatory frameworks. These efforts may offer lessons for Canada. Lévesque and Mendell (2004) provide an example of how an approach introduced in one jurisdiction can be adopted in another: the creation of social co-operatives in Italy helped the government of

22 An example from the United Kingdom is presented later in the section. The 2004 federal budget provides another example: one objective behind creating a new not-for-profit corporations act is to improve financial accountability.

23 Canadian governments contribute $1.5 billion or so in tax credits and Goods and Services Tax (GST) rebates each year to SEEs and other non-governmental organizations (Scott, 2003).

Quebec define solidarity-based co-operatives. They also note that while the status quo in Canada supports the formation of SEEs, it does not ensure uniform practices. Ninacs (2002) provides a specific example: non-profit organizations are often exempt from corporate income taxes, while co-operatives are usually considered to be for-profit for fiscal purposes. Kaufman and MacPherson (2001) suggest that limitations in existing legislative provisions may inhibit the effectiveness of co-operatives with public-service objectives.

Questions for researchers

- Are there lessons for Canada based on the introduction of new legal forms in other jurisdictions?
- How are SEEs and for-profit businesses treated differently under regulatory frameworks and under existing programs? What is the rationale for these differences?
- Would it be useful to introduce in Canada a new legal form lying somewhere between a tax-exempt non-profit organization and a for-profit business?

When and How Governments Should Fund the Social Economy

This sub-section considers several related funding issues that researchers could usefully explore in the future.

Funding criteria

Section 3 observed that governments need a funding policy that takes into account principles related to equity as well as efficiency to support making decisions about when and how to support the social economy. Given the close relationship between principles and values, work on funding criteria would be usefully informed by public opinion research and the consideration of how decisions are best made and supported in a democracy. Future interdisciplinary work might develop funding criteria and explore how best to apply them, based in part on lessons and models developed in other jurisdictions.

The assessment of funding options

Four options for how governments can provide funding to the social economy have been identified in the literature.

Option 1. Systematic financial support to address particular issues or policy priorities: Under this option, resources are allocated to different types of organizations in light of their objectives and capabilities after what is likely to be a complicated and lengthy period of policy development, analysis, and experimentation. For example:

- Billions of dollars were directed to address issues of poverty, health care, education, community development, the environment, and the arts by governments that were committed to program delivery largely by financing non-profit organizations during the "Great Society Era" of the 1960s in the United States (Salamon and Anheier, 1997; Young, 2003).
- Co-operatives have provided services within the framework of state-funded medical care in Saskatchewan (community health centres) and Quebec (ambulance services) (Fairbairn, 2001).
- Saskatchewan established a decentralized, integrated and comprehensive provincial home care program with community involvement following considerable experimentation and consultation (Lawson and Thériault, 1999).

Option 2. Social economy investment funds with criteria: In the absence of comprehensive policy making, an approach that created investment funds with general aims that SEEs could access might be appropriate. Governments could specify the social and financial considerations (or criteria, as described above) that would guide investments by such funds.

Carter (2003) provides several examples of funding mechanisms of this sort being employed in Europe. Lévesque et al. (1996) and Lebossé (2000) provide detailed information on the development and scope of venture capital in Quebec, much of which is directed toward the social economy. A substantial amount of government funding is involved, administered through a diverse collection of bodies governed in some cases by multi-stakeholder boards, often at the regional level. Some funding agents provide managerial and other advice as well as financing. Ninacs

(2002) notes that there are several hundred private and public funds operating in Quebec with combined assets approaching $1 billion. Provincial and federal tax measures facilitate investments by individuals and organizations in many of these funds.

Mendell et al. (2003) provide considerable information on each of five types of funds that support the development of the social economy in Quebec, either by directly financing SEEs, or by requiring for-profit businesses to reflect social and environmental objectives. It is evident that governments play a vital role in supporting the funds.

Assessments of funding mechanisms pioneered in Quebec should give consideration to some concerns about the considerable cost to governments of at least some of the funds that have been established. For example, Lévesque et al. (1996: 7-8) provided references to several studies that have assessed the cost to governments and other aspects of several funding mechanisms put in place in Quebec since the 1970s. Most but not all of the analysis cited suggests that the cost to governments has been considerable. At the same time, the management of the funds appears to have improved over time. Mendell et al. (2003) note that the operating costs of some of the funds that support the social economy, particularly community-based ones, are very high. Overall, these results suggest that other approaches to supporting the social economy could well have been more cost effective. A thorough and systematic assessment of studies done to date would be useful, possibly followed by further analytical work. Similarly, it would be useful to examine in aggregate several studies referenced by Jackson (2004) which suggest that the long-term savings to governments associated with some activities by SEEs might be higher than the investment required by governments.

An evaluation of the European Union's Local Social Pilot Project (LRDP, 2002) concluded that investment funds using small grants administered at the local level coupled with the provision of technical support provided a better way of promoting employment and social integration for groups in need than standard approaches administered by centralized bureaucracies, such as nationally defined training programs.

Powell and Clemens (1998) suggest that non-profit organizations have tended to operate in areas of social ambiguity and to remain there until issues, needs, and problems get sorted out. Social entrepreneurs willing to try new approaches may need local access to investment funds to operate effectively in such an environment.

As noted by Lévesque and Mendell (1999), the frontier between civil society and the state in Quebec has become more fluid since the mid-1990s. This may not support the state-led systematic consideration of specific issues, but it does allow for multi-actor responses to identified problems in light of a broad set of objectives. The recent development of the social economy in Quebec demonstrates that priorities can be identified and co-ordination can take place with limited government involvement, although with considerable government funding. The social economy, at least as practised in Quebec, might best be understood as a means for addressing issues identified by practitioners and local actors in consultation with intended beneficiaries.

Option 3. Subsidized financing by financial institutions: This option would add non-financial considerations to the standard lending criteria applied by financial institutions, which would otherwise be focused only on assessing the capacity of organizations to repay (i.e., on the risk associated with the loan). Governments would pay financial institutions to reflect these considerations in addition to the criteria they normally apply. For example, governments might pay banks to reduce the interest rates applied to SEEs that deliver certain kinds of services in particular sub-sectors. A funding mechanism of this sort was used to provide support to post-secondary students under the Canada Student Loans Program between 1964 and 2000 (HRSDC, 2005).

Financial institutions in Canada and abroad have developed both financial instruments and investment criteria meant to support projects with diverse positive benefits. Three examples are VanCity, Canada's largest credit union, with $7 billion in assets, ShoreBank Corporation, which is headquartered in Chicago and has over US$1 billion in assets, and the Montreal Community Loan Association, which provides loans to single mothers, welfare or unemployment recipients, unemployed youth, immigrants and refugees, and visible minorities, as well as for projects that meet the needs of individuals from these groups.

A Bank of England report (2003) that explores financing issues related to social enterprises notes that social audit tools could usefully be developed and deployed to help private and public investors meet their objectives through investing in the social economy. Tools of this sort could also be used by governments to develop supplemental financing criteria.

Option 4. Innovation pilots with learning: The OECD (2003) has been exploring the merits of funding innovative practices by SEEs, which may be especially good candidates, in part because they may be more open to experimentation than more traditional and bureaucratic institutions.

One key argument used to support government investments in research and development also applies to social economy innovations: since organizations are unlikely to receive all the benefits associated with investing in the creation of new knowledge that other organizations can easily apply, governments may need to provide supplemental support.

Innovation pilots would be most useful if lessons learned from them were shared broadly. Accordingly, any such program might include third-party review of the results and also the communication of best practices through such means as information products and conferences.

The preceding material provides an overview and a few considerations applicable to four plausible options for funding the social economy. Additional policy research might further define and compare these options.

The role of SEEs in delivering public services

A "public service" is defined as one that is funded at least in part by governments and either addresses a market failure or helps individuals in need with limited resources. The suggestion that governments have failed to address certain kinds of needs, and that new needs have emerged that are better met by the social economy, is prominent in the social economy literature. The solution generally proposed is that governments should provide more funding to SEEs, which would deliver the corresponding public services, perhaps achieving in the process further benefits like building social capital that governments are not able to achieve as effectively on their own.

The literature includes empirical findings and insights that bear on the proposition that SEEs are well placed to deliver public services.

It seems readily apparent that many public service SEEs share many objectives with government organizations that deliver support to those in need, and there are many examples of SEEs delivering public services. For example, Bode and Evers (2004) point out that, while funding and policy analysis is generally handled by governments in Germany, running social services is "preferably" handed over to non-state non-profit organizations. Defourny (2001) suggests that many EU countries are moving from a welfare state to a new welfare mix where responsibilities are shared among governments, for-profit providers, and third-sector organizations on the basis of strict criteria of both efficiency and fairness.

The distinction Pritchett and Woolcock (2004) make among policies, programs, and practices provides a helpful starting point for considering the roles of different kinds of organizations (or, alternatively, for identifying the criteria referred to by Defourny). According to Pritchett and Woolcock, policies involve the codification of judgment, while programs involve interacting with clients without applying judgment, and practices involve the application of judgment and interaction with clients.[24]

Several contributors to the social economy literature offer informed opinions concerning the comparative strengths of SEEs. For example:

- Neamtan (2004) suggests that public services have been understood by governments as centralized and uniform, that public administration is generally organized into silos with insufficient attention placed on integrating social, economic, cultural, and environmental goals, and that the needs of people might be better met by services based on proximity and partnerships.

24 Pritchett and Woolcock use different terminology in their longer exposition that illustrates the three concepts using skill sets and policy fields. See also Woolcock (2002, 2003).

- Carter (2003) notes that one current area of concentration for SEEs is filling service gaps for disadvantaged and hard to reach individuals, often in deprived neighbourhoods.
- Defourny (2001) notes that SEEs in France and Belgium appear to be particularly innovative at providing "proximity services," that is, services provided at the local level and/or where the service provider needs to interact with the beneficiary.
- Lévesque and Mendell (2004) refer to the integration of SEEs in the community and their proximity to certain social categories as advantages that help them identify needs and opportunities more quickly than other kinds of organizations.

Some polling, survey, and research results are consistent with the view that SEEs might play a useful role in delivering public services at the local level.

- Canadians see the voluntary sector as closer than governments to citizens (EKOS, 2003).
- Voluntary organizations and their funders both see the ability of the former to understand community needs as a principal strength (Hall et al., 2003a).
- Research suggests that certain groups are at high risk of persistent poverty and may be less able to benefit from traditional interventions by governments (Eliadis, 2004).
- An evaluation of the European Union's Local Social Pilot Project (LRDP, 2002) observes that traditional forms of promotion and publicity are not enough to mobilize groups in need, and that direct contact through such means as meetings and word of mouth are required.

Unfortunately, little systematic empirical research has been carried out on the relative efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery by different kinds of organizations. While several authors report results suggesting that SEEs may perform better than governments and for-profit businesses in some areas (e.g., Fairbairn, 2001; the Canadian Co-operative Association, 2004; Neamtan, 2004), a fairly detailed review of the social economy literature revealed only one econometric examination of the comparative efficiency and effectiveness of different organizational forms, and that study is more than 10 years old and based on data from the United States from about 25 years ago (Preston, 1993).

The potential usefulness of systematic empirical research is demonstrated by the conclusions that can be drawn from that one study. Preston (1993) found that non-profit day-care centres in the United States involved parents more than for-profit ones, were more likely to serve groups in need, and tended to provide higher quality and a broader range of services. At the same time, the average cost per child was higher at non-profit centres. By employing a wide range of control variables, Preston was able to bring information about costs and quality together, and to conclude that there was no significant difference in the cost effectiveness of non- and for-profit centres. These results suggest that the most important differences in the outcomes of non- and for-profit day-care centres involved product selection rather than efficiency levels.

What kinds of organizations are best placed to deliver what kinds of services is an empirical question. Researchers need to discover and report more about the relative efficiency and effectiveness of different kinds of organizations at delivering public services.

The social economy literature also includes observations concerning the relationship between SEEs and governments.

- Vidal (2001) observes that the "consistent historical pattern" in Spain over the period 1975-95 saw non-governmental initiative in the first stage followed by government actions that professionalized the activities and/or financed them on a more regular basis.
- Lawson and Thériault's (1999) review of the history of home care services provided in Saskatchewan suggests that costs, standards, eligibility criteria, working conditions, and remuneration varied considerably under the widely dispersed SEEs that were individually responsible for delivering them, suggesting that their activities may sometimes need to be complemented by the development of policies and standards.
- Fairbairn (2001, 2004) presents examples of how many of the basic programs of the modern welfare state were pioneered by co-operatives before being taken over by governments in the 20th century. He suggests that SEEs like co-operatives have developed the capacity to adapt and evolve in response to member needs in ways that government organizations have not demonstrated as

clearly, and proposes that a good model would have governments identifying principles with the social economy providing services that support community participation and self-help.

SEEs may be effective at reaching out to disadvantaged individuals and communities, if only because that is exactly what many of them aim to do. Expressed in terms of the terminology attributed to Pritchett and Woolcock, the preceding observations, opinions, and findings suggest that governments may be well placed to develop policies (and standards, which are closely related to policies), while SEEs may be more effective at engaging in practices, particularly at the community level to help individuals in need. They also suggest that representatives from SEEs may also be well placed to report on and describe needs at the local level, and thus may have a role to play in identifying and developing needed policies and services as well as in delivering them.

Expressed rather differently, SEEs may be effective at building and helping make productive use of the kind of social capital that might benefit disadvantaged individuals.[25]

Overhead funding

Representatives from Canadian non-profit and volunteer organizations have expressed the concern that increased emphasis placed on project-based funding by governments makes it difficult to maintain staff functions including human resources, volunteer coordination, board governance, research and evaluation, financial management, and participating in government consultations, among other things (Scott, 2003). Some findings from the 2003 National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations reinforce this view.[26]

In the United Kingdom, the report of the Voluntary Sector Cross Cutting Review concluded that it is legitimate for service providers to factor in the relevant element of overhead costs into their cost estimates for services delivered under contract (UK national government web site). Social economy enterprises may have a good case for seeking support for "overhead" funding analogous to the successful case made by post-secondary institutions for federal funding to cover the indirect costs of federally funded research and development projects. It would not be the first time support of this kind was provided to SEEs: the federal government in Germany provides some funding at the regional level for administration (Bode, 2003).

A related issue is what kinds of organizations are best suited to carry out what staff functions. For example, which functions are best carried out by SEEs themselves, and which are better carried out by specialized support organizations? The social economy in Quebec, which includes a diverse array of organizations that provide financial, strategic, and technical support, may offer lessons that might be applied elsewhere.

The rationale for providing support for overhead costs to SEEs may also apply to for-profit businesses that deliver public services on behalf of governments.

Questions for researchers

- What criteria should be included in a funding policy for the social economy? How can criteria be reflected in processes that support funding decisions?
- How can the various options for funding the social economy be further defined, assessed, and compared, based, in part, on lessons learned from other jurisdictions?
- What kinds of organizations are best placed to deliver what kinds of services? For example, are SEEs more efficient or effective than other kinds of organizations at engaging in practices to help individuals in need?
- Should funding for specific administrative functions be provided to social economy organizations and/or for-profit businesses? If so, for what functions, to what organizations, under what conditions?

25 The Policy Research Initiative (2003) has defined social capital in terms of networks of social relations that may provide access to needed resources and supports. For more on the relationship between the social economy and a broader definition of social capital, see the report of the CONSTISE project team (2003).

26 Sixty-one percent of incorporated organizations active for at least three years that received external funding from governments, foundations, and corporations reported that the unwillingness of funders to support core operations was a problem (27% reported that it was a serious problem) (Hall et al., 2004).

Tools for Measuring the Impact of Social Economy Enterprises

Section 3 observed that oversight is important whenever organizations rather than individuals decide what is produced.

Oversight can be operationalized in at least three different ways: through public reporting, program evaluation, and auditing. All three approaches require measuring the performance of SEEs.

Ideally, performance measures should be based on assessing the extent to which enterprises advance the efficiency and equity objectives set out by funders. The importance of performance measurement issues is widely recognized.

- Many contributors to the social economy literature call for the development of better tools (e.g., Brown, 2002; Tishler, 2001; Hall et al., 2003a).
- Results reported by Hall et al. (2003a) indicate that funders are increasingly looking for information on the extent to which broad objectives are achieved (i.e., outcomes) as well as on more direct activity measures (i.e., outputs).
- A recent review of the evaluation of non-profits (Carman and Millesen, 2004) notes that increased attention is being paid to how program evaluation can be used as an accountability tool.
- A SSHRC stakeholder workshop on the social economy held in July 2004 concluded that better performance measurement tools are needed.

This is an active area of research and progress is being made.

- Social auditing tools are being developed and assessed. For example, the New Economics Foundation in the United Kingdom is exploring how reporting, evaluation, and auditing tools can improve the quality of the services delivered by SEEs (NEF web site). Brown (2002) demonstrates how social auditing can be used to assess the activities of credit unions.
- A web-based resource centre of evaluation tools for use by voluntary organizations was created as part of the Voluntary Sector Evaluation Research Project (www.vserp.ca).
- Morgan (2004) describes how the charities acts of 1992 and 1993 in the United Kingdom introduced, for the first time, a general statutory regime for the scrutiny of charity accounts. Larger charities must be audited by a registered auditor, while smaller ones can opt for an independent examination of their accounts. Reporting standards have improved since the requirements were put in place.

The last example illustrates how performance measurement can be addressed in regulatory frameworks. Another approach would require SEEs to meet particular public reporting requirements whenever they receive funding from governments. This would increase accountability and allow enterprises to build track records for the consideration of potential funders.

The development of standards may need to accompany the testing of new approaches, as suggested by survey results reported by Hall et al. (2003a): voluntary organizations would like to see greater consistency across funders in the use of terminology, and they identify different information requirements as a particular burden for projects with multiple funders. Along these lines, two in five organizations identified reporting requirements as a problem in the 2003 National Survey of Nonprofit and Voluntary Organizations.[27]

Questions for researchers

- What performance indicators and tools are needed to measure the contributions of SEEs?
- How can reporting, evaluation, and auditing schemes be assessed and standardized?
- What approaches and requirements from other jurisdictions might be applied in Canada?

27 Forty-three percent of incorporated organizations active for at least three years that received external funding from governments identified the reporting requirements of funders as a problem; 8% said it was a serious one (Hall et al., 2004).

Best Practices for Governments and SEEs

Lévesque and Mendell (2004) emphasize the need for an inventory of social economy innovative practices. Innovations identified in this way might inform the development of new policy by governments and the sharing of effective practices across SEEs.

Some best practices for how governments should support the social economy have been identified. For example, a review of the Local Social Pilot Project of the European Union turned up considerable material (LRDP, 2002).[28]

Additional material that will be useful for governments is on the way. For example, the identification of best practices is an important part of the Community Employment Innovation Project (CEIP) that is ongoing in Cape Breton (Greenwood et al., 2003). The CEIP aims to encourage employment while supporting local community development. Under the project, randomly selected individuals eligible for Employment Insurance and income assistance are provided with the opportunity to receive a community wage in lieu of their benefits, in return for employment on local projects created and run by organizations and individuals in their communities. To facilitate impact assessment, the project makes use of random assignment to experimental and control groups and includes an extensive evaluation strategy that will examine and compare impacts on individuals and communities, and will also identify delivery issues for governments. Impact assessment will continue until 2008.[29]

Reviewing the many government initiatives of the 1990s, especially in Europe and Quebec, would undoubtedly identify further lessons that might be applied by governments across Canada.

A July 2004 SSHRC stakeholder workshop on the social economy concluded that work on best practices should identify the sorts of interventions that work under what conditions, and should aim to learn from failures as well as from successes. Among the areas identified by Lévesque and Mendell (2004) for which best practices might be explored are training and learning, democratic practices and governance, and performance evaluation criteria and practices. This list highlights that SEEs as well as governments can benefit from identifying, sharing, and applying best practices. Work has been carried out in this area as well, and more is underway.

- A report prepared for the Small Business Service in the United Kingdom includes case studies of 20 SEEs and offers observations on a variety of issues (Smallbone et al., 2001).
- Lévesque and Mendell (2004) provide over 100 examples of social economy practices from every Canadian province and territory and from several other countries. While the examples were chosen to illustrate the diversity of practices, such information is a useful first step in analyzing best practices.
- Major findings and results from the Emergence of Social Enterprises in Europe (EMES) research network's 2001-04 Socio-Economic Performance of Social Enterprises in the Field of Work-Integration (PERSE) project were presented at an October 2004 conference (International Society for Third-Sector Research, 2004). The EU-funded project analyzed the performance of work integration SEEs by surveying 200 organizations from 11 EU states. It examined, among other things, the benefits received by participants and by society as a whole (EMES web site). A book summarizing the project will be published in 2005 (International Society for Third-Sector Research, 2004).

There is reason for thinking that training might be treated as a priority in work on best practices.

- While private sector and government elites in Canada rate the performance of the voluntary sector as better than the performance of the private

28 Under the project, 30 NGO-led intermediary bodies provided support to 3,350 micro-projects from 1999 to 2002 through a combination of outreach, project development, operational support, and micro-grants of up to Euro 10,000. A 2002 review of the project provides considerable information helpful for developing best practices. Here is a summary of the kind of advice included in the report of the review: interventions should normally cover small geographical areas and involve small and locally based NGOs that have direct contact with target groups; the capacity to learn from experience and adapt is important; non-monetary technical support is critical ("just providing small grants would not have worked"); target groups should participate at all stages; the amount of financial support provided to individual projects should be kept small (LRDP, 2002).

29 Considerably more information on the CEIP can be found at <http://www.srdc.org> and in Greenwood et al. (2003).

sector and governments in a wide variety of areas, this was far from the case on "attracting talented staff" (EKOS, 2003).

- Vidal (2001) reports that able leadership has been the key success factor for SEEs in Spain, while noting that a large majority of such leaders had prior business experience in for-profit organizations. Several observers have suggested that combining business management skills with social entrepreneurship should be a priority in future training efforts (Tishler, 2001; Ninacs, 2002; Carter, 2003).

Work on the training and other human resource issues faced by SEEs would not have to take place in a vacuum: Ninacs (2002) refers to two reports on the subject prepared since 2000 in Quebec. The web site for Human Resources and Skills Development Canada's Sector Council Program is another source of information: it provides references to a labour market update study done for the Child Care Human Resources Sector Council, as well as studies on the Non-Institutional Health and Social Services, and the Hospitals and other Institutions sectors. In addition, the Canadian Policy Research Networks has been exploring human resource issues in the non-profit sector (CPRN web site).

The identification of best practices has been usefully referred to as the codification of tacit knowledge (Lévesque and Mendell, 2004). While considerable work has been carried out, there appears to be more information available than information tools. After they have been accumulated, best practices need to be synthesized and maintained in light of emerging research findings. Information products need to be useful for, and useable by, policy leaders and practitioners. Efforts to develop best practices will be stronger if teams made up of researchers and practitioners collaborate on both research and knowledge transfer, and if policy makers have the ongoing opportunity to participate as the work unfolds. In addition, primary responsibility for the investigation and communication of best practices might be assigned to organizations or individuals that are at arm's length from the givers and receivers of funding that supports SEEs.

The new SSHRC Community-University Research Alliance Social Economy program will link researchers with communities and not-for-profit organizations to work on social and community economic development issues. Best practices will be identified and communicated under the program over five years beginning in 2005-06.[8]

Questions for researchers

- What are the lessons for Canadian governments from best practices research conducted to date in Canada and abroad?
- How can information about the diverse activities of SEEs best be analyzed and communicated to support continuous improvement?

Resources to Support Policy Research

A variety of research centres, data sources, and web sites that can be consulted to support policy research on the social economy are listed in Appendix 2. The references section provides the sources cited in this document. The further reading section consists of the bibliography from the paper prepared by Lévesque and Mendell (2004) to support the development of the SSHRC CURA program on the social economy, plus a few additional sources identified during the preparation of this guide.

8) More information on the program can be found at <http://www.sshrc.ca/web/apply/program_descriptions/social/social_economy_e.asp>.

6. Conclusion

Much of the recent literature examining the activities of SEEs makes a strong case that the social economy represents a positive response to the evolving needs of people and objectives. Consistent with this perspective, the observations developed in this guide suggest that governments should facilitate the formation of SEEs that advance shared common interest and public service objectives.

Whether governments should provide funding to any organization should depend on its public interest objectives and on its ability to advance those objectives efficiently and effectively. Before funding any kind of organization, governments should examine supporting intended beneficiaries directly as an alternative or complement.

Broadly speaking, the social economy may be best understood as a promising approach rather than a solution to how governments can help individuals to meet their evolving needs and objectives.

Section 5 examined how researchers could usefully explore issues in each of five areas to help governments better support the social economy and help SEEs operate more effectively:

- descriptive research and data development;
- regulatory frameworks;
- when and how governments should fund the social economy;
- tools for measuring the impact of SEEs; and
- best practices for governments and SEEs.

While opinions concerning the role of government sometimes differed at the joint PRI-SSHRC Roundtable on the social economy held in September 2004, it was noteworthy that there was considerable agreement concerning research priorities. Along these lines, we trust that, to some extent regardless of the perspectives they adopt, researchers will find this guide useful as they inform the development of new policies and programs by governments and identify and share best practices across the social economy. We hope the guide will prove its worth as this important work proceeds.

Appendix 1
Analysis of Data Reported Since 2004

Table A1-1 provides several growth indicators for the non-profit and voluntary sector and the same sector excluding near-government organizations (i.e., post-secondary institutions and hospitals). The former is considerably larger than the social economy as defined earlier. The latter corresponds fairly closely to the definition of the social economy.

Table A1-1, Growth Indicators for Sectors Overlapping the Social Economy, Canada

	Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector (NPVS) %	NPVS Excluding Near-Government Organizations %
Real growth in GDP, 1997 to 1999[a]	4.7	6.0
Proportion of organizations reporting an increase/decrease in revenue over the period 2000 to 2003[b]	36 / 22	36 / 22[c]
Proportion of organizations reporting an increase/decrease in the number of paid employees over the period 2000 to 2003[d]	30 / 11	31 / 13[e]
Real growth in transfers from the federal government, 1997 to 1999[f]	31	39
Real growth in transfers from provincial governments, 1997 to 1999[g]	7.9	6.2

Notes: Real values were calculated using Statistic Canada's Consumer Price Index.

a Hamdad et al. (2004).

b Hall et al. (2004). The remaining organizations reported that revenues remained about the same over the three-year period.

c This is the unweighted average across the 13 applicable activity areas. The proportion of organizations reporting an increase was greater than the proportion reporting a decrease in 12 of these 13 areas.

d Hall et al. (2004). The remaining organizations reported that the number of paid employees remained about the same over the three-year period.

e This is the unweighted average across the 13 applicable activity areas. The proportion of organizations reporting an increase was greater than the proportion reporting a decrease in 12 of these 13 areas.

f Hamdad et al. (2004).

g Hamdad et al. (2004).

Table A1-2 provides two comparisons between Canada and other developed countries for the non-profit and voluntary sector, which, as noted, is considerably larger than the social economy as defined earlier.

Table A1-2. The Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector in Canada Compared to Other Developed Countries

	Canada	Developed-Country Average[a]
	%	%
Proportion of the economically active population[b]	11.1	7.6[c]
Government transfers as a proportion of total revenue	51[d]	48[e]

Notes: The values reported in the table are based on data from 1995 to 2003. See Hall et al. (2005) for more on data sources.

a Based on 17 countries.

b The estimates from Hall et al. (2005) take into account time volunteered. They exclude religious worship organizations.

c The values ranged from 3.8% to 14.4% across the 17 countries.

d Hamdad et al. (2004).

e Hall et al. (2005).

Table A1-3 provides transfers by level of government to the non-profit and voluntary sector, and the same sector excluding near-government organizations (i.e., post-secondary institutions and hospitals).

Table A1-3. Transfers from Canadian Governments to Sectors Overlapping the Social Economy, by Level of Government, 1999

Level of government	Non-Profit and Voluntary Sector (NPVS)		NPVS Excluding Near-Government Organizations	
	$Billions	Percent	$Billions	Percent
Federal	2.8	5.5	2.0	20.9
Provincial and territorial	46.9	94.2	7.3	78.2
Local	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.9
Total	**49.8**	**100.0**	**9.4**	**100.0**

Source: Hamdad et al. (2004).

Table A1–4. Estimated Federal Support Provided to Provinces and Territories, by Program, 2005-06

Program	Amount (in $Billions)
Canada Health Transfer (CHT)	31.8
Canada Social Transfer (CST)	15.5
Equalization	10.9
Territorial Formula Financing	2.0
Other	3.9
Total	**62.7**

Notes: Both cash and tax transfer components are included. Equalization associated with the tax transfers under CHT/CST is included in both CHT/CST and Equalization. The total has been reduced by $1.3 billion to avoid double counting.

Source: Department of Finance web site.

Table A1-4 presents federal support provided to provincial and territorial governments through cash and tax transfers by program.

Appendix 2
Policy Research Resources

A growing number of research centres, data sources, and web sites are available to support policy research on the social economy. All of the resources in this appendix, except for those followed by an asterisk, are taken from Lévesque and Mendell (2004).

Canadian Research Centres

- Centre de recherche sur les innovations sociales (CRISES), made up of seven Quebec universities
- The Caledon Institute
- The Tamarack Institute
- Vibrant Communities
- The Canadian Centre for Social Development
- The Canadian Policy Research Networks
- Two Canada Research Chairs under the federal government's Canada Research Chairs Program*:
  - the Chair on the Social Economy, held by Marie Bouchard from the Université du Québec à Montréal; and
  - the Chair in Community Development, held by Louis Favreau from the Université du Québec en Outaouais.

International Research Centres

- The International Centre of Research and Information on the Public and Co-operative Economy/ Centre interdisciplinaire de recherche et d'information sur les entreprises collectives (CIRIEC)
- The European EMES Network
- The Co-operatives Research Unit of the Open University at Milton Keynes, United Kingdom
- The International Society for Third-Sector Research (ISTR) at Johns Hopkins University
- Stanford University's Center for Social Innovation
- The New Economics Foundation (NEF) in the United Kingdom, a pioneer in local development, sustainable development, social enterprise and qualitative socio-economic indicators. Among other things, the Foundation continues to explore reporting, evaluation, and auditing* tools that can measure the impact of SEEs and improve the quality of the services they deliver.
- Over the past two decades, the OECD's Co-operative Action Programme on Local Economic and Employment Development* has carried out work on social cohesion and enterprise creation at the local level. The Programme has promoted the creation of social enterprises and other non-profit organizations as a means of reconciling economy and society, and has examined the intangible goods (social welfare, social capital, social cohesion, and social innovation) produced by the social economy (OECD, 2003).
- Several programs and areas of work at the International Labour Organization* address social economy issues, primarily although not exclusively in developing countries: work on co-operatives and local economic development under the employment program and the Strategies and Tools Against Social Exclusion and Poverty (STEP) program (ILO web site).

Data Sources

A Statistics Canada publication from 1998 provides an overview of data resources then publicly available on the non-profit sector in Canada (Reed and Howe, 1998). The report includes several page descriptions of each of 15 data files. Since the publication of the report, Statistics Canada has released data from Cycle 17 of the General Social Survey on social engagement in Canada, and the National Survey of Giving, Volunteering and Participating is now conducted every three years. The publication can be downloaded from Statistics Canada's web site (Statistics Canada, 2005).

The European Union's Support Measures database provides an overview of the most important business support measures available in 25 European countries. The database includes some information on measures targeted at the social economy. It can be accessed at <http://europa.eu.int/comm/enterprise/smie>.

Web Sites

- Alliance de recherche universités-communautés en économie sociale (ARUC-ÉS) <www.aruc-es.uqam.ca>
- Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA) <www.arnova.org/>
- Caledon Institute of Social Policy <www.caledoninst.org/>
- Canadian Centre for Policy Alternatives <www.policyalternatives.ca/>
- Canadian Council on Social Development <www.ccsd.ca/>
- Center for Civil Society Studies (CCSS) <www.jhu.edu/~ccss/about.html>
- Center for Community Enterprise <www.cedworks.com/>
- Center for Social Innovation <www-gsb.stanford.edu/csi/>
- Centre de recherche en innovation sociale dans l'économie sociale, les entreprises et les syndicats (CRISES) <www.crises.uqam.ca>
- Centre de recherche sur les politiques et le développement social (CPDS) <www.criteres.umontreal.ca/> <www.politiquessociales.net/>
- Centre interdisciplinaire de recherche et d'information sur les entreprises collectives (CIRIEC) <www.ciriec.uqam.ca/>
- Chantier de l'économie sociale <www.chantier.qc.ca>
- Community Development Finance Authority (CDFA) <www.nhcdfa.org>
- Community Economic Development Across Canada <www.cedcanada.ca/>
- Contribution of Social Capital in the Social Economy to Local Economic Development in Western Europe (CONSCISE) <www.malcolmread.co.uk/conscise/>
- EMES European Network <www.emes.net/fr/index.php>
- European Network of Cities and Regions for the Social Economy <www.revesnetwork.net>
- Finance et solidarité (Finansol) <www.finansol.org/>
- Gateway to the European Union (EUROPA) <europa.eu.int/>
- International Association of Investors in the Social Economy (INAISE) <www.inaise.org>
- International Society for Third-Sector Research (ISTR) <www.istr.org/>
- Johns Hopkins Institute for Policy Studies (IPS) <www.jhu.edu/~ips/>
- Learning Enrichment Foundation <www.lefca.org/>
- New Economics Foundation <www.neweconomics.org>
- OECD Local Economic and Employment Development Programme <www.oecd.org>
- Social Enterprise Coalition <www.socialenterprise.org.uk>
- Tamarack Institute <www.tamarackcommunity.ca>
- Vibrant communities <www.vibrantcommunities.ca>
- Voluntary Sector Initiative <www.vsi-isbc.ca>

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